

# **1Genome-wide association study of germline variants and breast cancer-**

## **2specific mortality**

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431

432

433**Abstract**

## 434Background:

435We examined the associations between germline variants and breast cancer mortality using  
436a large meta-analysis of women of European ancestry.

## 437Methods:

438Meta-analyses included summary estimates based on Cox models of twelve datasets using  
439~10.4 million variants for 96,661 women with breast cancer and 7,697 events (breast  
440cancer-specific deaths). Estrogen receptor (ER)-specific analyses were based on 64,171  
441ER-positive (4,116) and 16,172 ER-negative (2,125) patients. We evaluated the probability  
442of a signal to be a true positive using the Bayesian false discovery probability (BFDP).

## 443Results:

444We did not find any variant associated with breast cancer-specific mortality at  $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ . For  
445ER-positive disease, the most significantly associated variant was chr7rs4717568  
446(BFDP=7%,  $P=1.28 \times 10^{-7}$ , hazard ratio [HR]=0.88, 95% confidence interval [CI]=0.84-0.92);  
447the closest gene is *AUTS2*. For ER-negative disease, the most significant variant was  
448chr7:rs67918676 (BFDP=11%,  $P=1.38 \times 10^{-7}$ , HR=1.27, 95% CI=1.16-1.39); located within a  
449long intergenic non-coding RNA gene (AC004009.3), close to the *HOXA* gene cluster.

## 450Conclusions:

451We uncovered germline variants on chromosome 7 at BFDP<15% close to genes for which  
452there is biological evidence related to breast cancer outcome. However, the paucity of  
453variants associated with mortality at genome-wide significance underpins the challenge in  
454providing genetic-based individualised prognostic information for breast cancer patients.

455

## 456Main

457Breast cancer is the most common cancer in the Western world and accounts for 15% of  
458cancer-related deaths in women, with about 522,000 deaths worldwide in 2012<sup>1</sup>. Survival

after a diagnosis of breast cancer varies considerably between patients even with closely matching tumour characteristics. Models that predict the likelihood of survival after breast cancer treatment use tumour and treatment data, but currently do not take host factors into account. The identification of prognostic and predictive biomarkers inherent in the germline of the patients rather than the tumour could pinpoint mechanisms of tumour progression and help with treatment stratification to increase therapeutic benefit. Such markers include inherited genetic variation, as there is evidence for heritability of breast cancer-specific mortality in affected first-degree relatives<sup>2-5</sup>. Germline variation may affect prognosis by affecting tumour biology, since such variants are known to be associated with risk of specific breast tumour subtypes, particularly those defined by hormone receptor status, and have different outcomes<sup>6-8</sup>. Germline genotype could also affect the efficacy of adjuvant drug therapies<sup>9,10</sup> or might condition the host tumour environment via vascularisation<sup>11,12</sup>, metastatic pattern<sup>13,14</sup>, stroma-tumour interaction<sup>15,16</sup> and immune surveillance<sup>17,18</sup>.

The association between common germline genetic variation and breast cancer-specific mortality has been examined in many candidate gene studies<sup>5,9,26-35,14,36,19-25</sup>, as well as in moderate-sized genome-wide association studies (GWAS)<sup>37-41</sup>. However, it has been difficult to link GWAS results to plausible candidate genes and few have been convincingly replicated<sup>36,42</sup>. Large studies with long follow-up and reliable data on known prognostic factors are required if novel alleles associated with prognosis in breast cancer are to be identified at a level of genome-wide significance. In the present work, we pooled genotype data from multiple breast cancer GWAS discovery and replication efforts<sup>43,44</sup> with new genotype data obtained from a large breast cancer series genotyped using the OncoArray chip<sup>45,46</sup>. We examined associations with risk of breast cancer-specific mortality in a total of 296,661 breast cancer patients with survival time data. We then investigated the potential functional role of the selected variants by predicting possible target genes.

## 485 **Materials and methods**

### 486 **Breast Cancer Patient Samples**

487 We included data from twelve datasets (n=96,661) in which multiple breast cancer patient  
488 cohorts were genotyped by a variety of arrays providing genome-wide coverage of common  
489 variants. An overview of the datasets with specification of the arrays used is given in  
490 **Supplementary Table 1**. Data from eight of these datasets have been used in previous  
491 analyses (n=37,954)<sup>44</sup>. However, the COGS dataset from the Breast Cancer Association  
492 Consortium (BCAC) was updated to include additional follow-up and death events and  
493 additional genotype data, increasing the number of events and samples to a total of  
494 n=29,959 patients. Two new datasets, the BCAC OncoArray and the SUCCESS A trial,  
495 comprising 58,027 samples, were added for the current analyses.

496 The OncoArray is a custom Illumina genotyping array designed by the Genetic Associations  
497 and Mechanisms in Oncology (GAME-ON) consortium. It includes 533,000 variants of which  
498 260,660 form a GWAS backbone, with the remainder being custom content, details of which  
499 have been described previously<sup>45</sup>. The SUCCESS-A Study<sup>47</sup> is a randomized phase III study  
500 of n=3,299 breast cancer cases. Cases from the trial were genotyped using the Illumina  
501 Human OmniExpress array. We downloaded imputed genotypes from dbGaP (data  
502 reference 6266).

503 COGS samples that were also genotyped on the OncoArray were removed from the COGS  
504 dataset (n=14,426). Female patients with invasive breast cancer diagnosed at age >18 years,  
505 and with follow-up data available were included in the analyses. BCAC data from freeze 8  
506 was used, in which 873 COGS samples with unknown breast cancer-specific mortality status  
507 were excluded from the analyses. All stages of cancer, including metastatic, were used in

508the analysis. Some individual studies applied additional selection criteria such as young age  
509or early breast cancer stage (**Supplementary Table 2**).

510

## 511**Genotype and sample quality control, ancestry analysis and imputation**

512The genotype and sample quality control for the datasets have been described  
513previously<sup>44,45,47,48</sup>. Ancestry outliers for each dataset were identified by multidimensional  
514scaling or LAMP<sup>49</sup> on the basis of a set of unlinked variants and HapMap2 populations.  
515Samples of European ancestry were retained for analyses.

516Ten of the datasets were imputed using the reference panel from the 1000 Genomes Project  
517in a two-stage procedure. The 1000 Genomes project Phase 3 (October 2014) release was  
518used as the reference panel for all the datasets apart from SUCCESS-A, which used the  
519Phase 1 release (March 2012). Imputation for CGEMS and BPC3 was performed using the  
520program MACH<sup>50</sup>. Phased genotypes were first derived using SHAPEIT<sup>51</sup> and IMPUTE2<sup>52</sup>  
521and then used to perform imputation on the phased data. The main analyses were based on  
522variants that were imputed with imputation  $r^2 > 0.3$  and had minor allele frequency  
523(MAF)  $> 0.01$  in at least one of the datasets leading to ~10.4 million variants. To match the  
524individual datasets in the meta-analysis we used the chromosome position. Variants were  
525kept in the analysis as long as they were present in one of the studies. In those cases where  
526there was ambiguity over the naming of the insertions and deletions, the MAF was used for  
527further matching.

528

## 529**Statistical and bioinformatic methods**

530Time-to-event was calculated from the date of diagnosis. For prevalent cases with study  
531entry after diagnosis left truncation was applied, i.e., follow-up started at the date of study

532entry<sup>53</sup>. Follow-up was right censored on the date of death, on the date last known alive if  
533death did not occur, or at 15 years after diagnosis, whichever came first. We chose the 15  
534years cut-off because follow-up varied between studies and after that period follow-up data  
535became scarce. Follow-up of the cohorts is illustrated in Kaplan Meier curves  
536(Supplementary Figure 1).

537The hazard ratios (HR) for the association of genotypes with breast cancer-specific mortality  
538were estimated using Cox proportional hazards regression implemented in an in-house  
539program written in C++. Analysis of the CGEMS and BPC3 data was conducted using  
540ProbABEL<sup>54</sup>. The estimates of the individual studies were combined using an inverse-  
541variance weighted meta-analysis. Since meta-analysis results based on the Wald test have  
542been shown to be inflated for rare variants<sup>55</sup> we recomputed the standard errors (SE) based  
543on the likelihood ratio test (LRT) statistic (see details in **Supplementary methods**), using  
544the formula:

$$SE = \log(HR) / \sqrt{LRT}$$

547For each dataset we included as covariates a variable number of principal components  
548(**Supplementary Table 1**) from the ancestry analysis as covariates in order to control for  
549cryptic population substructure. The Cox models were stratified by country for the OncoArray  
550dataset and by study for the COGS dataset. Statistical tests were performed for each variant  
551by combining the results for all the datasets using a fixed-effects meta-analysis. Inflation of  
552the test statistics ( $\lambda$ ) was estimated by dividing the 45th percentile of the test statistic by  
5530.357 (the 45th percentile for a  $\chi^2$  distribution on 1 degree of freedom). Analyses were  
554carried out for all invasive breast cancer and for ER-positive and ER-negative disease  
555separately.

556To assess the probability of a variant being a false positive we used a Bayesian False  
557Discovery Probability (BFDP)<sup>56</sup> test based on the p-value, a prior set to 0.0001 and an upper

558likely hazard ratio of 1.3.

559To predict potential target genes, we used Bedtools v2.26 to intersect notable variants with  
560genomic annotation data relevant to gene regulation activity in samples derived from breast  
561tissue. We examined features including enhancers, promoters and transcription factor  
562binding sites identified by the Roadmap<sup>57</sup> and ENCODE<sup>58</sup> Projects. Expression quantitative  
563loci (eQTL) data from GTEx<sup>59</sup> were queried for evidence of potential cis-regulatory activity.

564

## 565Results

566Genotype data from 96,661 breast cancer cases (64,171 ER-positive and 16,172 ER-  
567negative) with 7,697 breast cancer deaths within 15 years were included in the primary  
568analyses. For 16,318 cases we did not have ER-status information. The average follow-up  
569time was 6.38 years. Details of the numbers of samples and events in each dataset are  
570given in **Supplementary Table 3**. Manhattan and Quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plots for the  
571associations between variants and breast cancer-specific mortality of all invasive, ER-  
572negative, and ER-positive breast cancers are shown in **Figure 1** and **Figure 2** respectively.  
573There was some evidence of inflation of the test statistic with an inflation factor of 1.06 for all  
574invasive and ER-positive, and 1.05 for ER-negative including all variants. These Q-Q plots  
575showed no evidence of an association at  $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ; at less stringent thresholds for  
576significance, there were an increasing number of observed associations for all three  
577analyses (**Figure 2**).

578We identified three variants at BFD $P < 15\%$  associated with breast cancer-specific mortality  
579of patients with ER-negative disease (**Table 1**). These variants are part of an independent  
580set of 32 highly correlated variants<sup>60</sup> on chromosome 7q21.1 that were associated at  
581 $P < 5 \times 10^{-6}$  (**Supplementary Table 4**). The LD matrix between these variants computed based  
582on the 1,000 European genomes<sup>61</sup>, and their chromosomal positions, are shown in



**Supplementary Figure 2.** The strongest association was for rs67918676: HR=1.27; 95% CI=1.16-1.39;  $P=1.38 \times 10^{-7}$ ; risk allele A frequency=0.12 and BFDP=11%. The imputation efficiency for this variant was high, with  $r^2 > 0.99$  for all datasets.

The lead variant rs67918676 is located in an intron of a long intergenic non-coding RNA gene, *LOC105375207* (AC004009.3), in close proximity to the *HOXA* gene cluster and the lncRNA *HOTTIP*. We tested the genes within a 500 MBp window around the 32 highly correlated variants for the association of their mRNA expression in breast tumours with recurrence-free survival using KMplotter (kmplot.com/analysis). Four of the ten closest genes with probes available showed moderate association with breast cancer survival at  $P < 0.005$  (*HOXA9*, *HOTTIP*, *EVX1*, *TAX1BP1*), with these associations mainly observed for ER-negative breast cancer (**Supplementary Table 5A**). Yet, intersecting the germline variants with several sources of genomic annotation information (e.g., chromosome conformation, enhancer-promoter correlations or gene expression) we could not find strong *in silico* evidence of gene regulation by the region containing the associated variants.

We also identified four variants at a BFDP<15% associated with breast cancer-specific mortality of patients with ER-positive disease (**Table 1**). These variants were part of an independent set of 45 highly correlated variants on chromosome 7q11.22 that were associated at  $P < 5 \times 10^{-6}$  (**Supplementary Table 6**). The LD matrix between these variants computed based on the 1,000 European genomes<sup>61</sup>, and their chromosomal positions, are shown in **Supplementary Figure 3**. The strongest association was for rs4717568: HR=0.88; 95% CI=0.84; 0.92;  $P=1.28 \times 10^{-7}$ ; risk allele A frequency=0.62 and BFDP=7%. The imputation efficiency for this variant was high, with an average  $r^2=0.96$  for all datasets. Two coding genes, *AUTS2* and *GALNT17*, were located within a 500 MBp window around the highly correlated variants, but the expression of neither of the two was associated with breast cancer survival in KMplotter analyses of TCGA data (**Supplementary Table 5B**).

The association of rs67918676 with ER-negative breast cancer was observed in eight of nine studies with no significant heterogeneity present at  $P < 0.01$  (**Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure 4a**). For ER-positive disease, the association of rs4717568 was detected in all seven studies with no heterogeneity present at  $P < 0.01$  (**Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure 4b**).

Apart from the 7q variants, only one isolated rare variant reached BFDP values below 15% for all tumours (**Table 1**). The variant, rs370332736: HR=1.17; 95% CI=1.10; 1.24;  $P = 2.48 \times 10^{-7}$ ; risk allele A frequency=0.09 and BFDP=13%, is located on chromosome 6 and has an average imputation efficiency of  $r^2 = 0.96$  for all datasets. In addition, there were several variants found at  $P < 10^{-6}$  for all three analyses (**Supplementary Table 4, Supplementary Table 6 and Supplementary Table 7**).

## Discussion

In this large survival analysis, we report a genome-wide study for identifying genetic markers associated with breast cancer-specific mortality, involving 96,661 patients from a combined meta-analysis. We found one noteworthy region with 32 highly correlated variants on chromosome 7q21.1 for ER-negative. The lead variant rs67918676 ( $P = 1.38 \times 10^{-7}$  and BFDP of 11% under reasonable assumptions for the prior probability of association) is located in a long intergenic non-coding RNA gene (AC004009.3). While this represents an uncharacterised transcript mainly expressed in testis and prostate, it is located about 200 kb away from a cluster of *HOXA* homeobox genes that has been implicated in breast cancer aetiology and prognosis<sup>62,63</sup>. This region also contains *HOTTIF*, a lncRNA with prognostic value on clinical outcome in breast cancer<sup>64</sup>. The flanking region on the opposite side contains *TAX1BP1*, a gene that may be involved in chemosensitivity<sup>65</sup>. Interestingly, database mining using KMplotter revealed evidence for an association of the expression

633of these nearby genes with survival from ER-negative breast cancer. On the other hand,  
 634the enhancer activity at this noteworthy locus was predicted to be low based on the  
 635intersection with biofeatures characteristic of regulatory activity as no known eQTLs  
 636appear to exist in this region, suggesting that gene regulatory effects of the identified  
 637variants are limited in breast tissue or may be activated under certain untested conditions.  
 638For ER-positive tumours, we found another noteworthy region with 45 highly correlated  
 639variants at  $p < 5 \times 10^{-6}$  on chromosome 7q11.22. The lead variant rs4717568 ( $P = 1.28 \times 10^{-7}$   
 640and BDFP of 7%) is located between the *AUTS2* and the *GALNT17* genes. *GALNT17*  
 641encodes an N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase that may play a role in membrane trafficking.  
 642*AUTS2* has been implicated in neurodevelopment, but *AUTS2* overexpression in cancer has  
 643also been linked with resistance to chemotherapy and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition<sup>69</sup>.  
 644It has been postulated that overexpression of *AUTS2* is specific for metastases<sup>69</sup>, which may  
 645be consistent with the inconspicuous gene expression results in the TCGA database.  
 646It is important to note the differences between the present and the previous GWAS study we  
 647had undertaken<sup>44</sup>, the latter done in a much smaller dataset (3,632 events versus 7,697  
 648events in the current study) that did not include the OncoArray study. The OncoArray study  
 649is the largest dataset used in the present meta-analysis and also the study with the highest  
 650imputation quality. The two previously reported variants (rs148760487 for all breast cancer  
 651tumours and rs2059614 for ER-negative tumours) were not associated with breast cancer-  
 652specific mortality in the current analyses ( $P = 1.59 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $P = 5.41 \times 10^{-4}$  respectively). The  
 653most likely explanation for this is that the original results were false positive findings, despite  
 654the original association being nominally “genome-wide significant”. The BDFPs for the origin-  
 655al reported associations were 54% and 16%, respectively. For the lead variants identified in  
 656the present analysis, we tested for differences in the imputation quality between the current  
 657and previous analysis. All variants had high imputation quality ( $\sim 0.99$ ) in the previous study,

658 suggesting that the longer and more complete follow-up together with a higher number of  
659 events allowed more robust identification of breast cancer mortality associations. However,  
660 there are some weaknesses of the current meta-analysis such as heterogeneity between pa-  
661 tient treatment over time and between countries and between datasets with different study  
662 designs that should be considered. These limitations, intrinsic to large survival meta-ana-  
663 lyses, increase the noise and reduce the power to detect true associations.

664 In conclusion, we found two novel candidate regions at chromosome 7 for breast cancer sur-  
665 vival, credible at a BFDP < 15% and associated with either ER-negative or ER-positive breast  
666 cancer-specific mortality. Concerning additional variants, we might still be underpowered to  
667 obtain a more comprehensive picture of genomic markers for breast cancer outcome. Over-  
668 all, the role of germline variants in breast cancer mortality is still unclear<sup>36,37,66</sup> and additional  
669 analyses with larger sample sizes and more complete follow-up including treatments are  
670 needed. In addition, alternative methods that integrate multiple data sources such as gene  
671 expression, protein-protein interactions or pathway analyses may be used to aggregate the  
672 effect of multiple variants with small effects<sup>67</sup>. Such approaches could increase the power of  
673 the analyses while better explaining the underlying biological mechanisms associated with  
674 breast cancer mortality.

675

676

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